

On quasi-exactly solvable matrix models

R.Z. Zhdanov

Institute of Mathematics,

3 Tereshchenkivska Street, 252004 Kiev, Ukraine*

Abstract

An efficient procedure for constructing quasi-exactly solvable matrix models is suggested. It is based on the fact that the representation spaces of representations of the algebra $sl(2, \mathbf{R})$ within the class of first-order matrix differential operators contain finite dimensional invariant subspaces.

The Lie-algebraic approach to constructing quasi-exactly solvable one-dimensional stationary Schrödinger equations as suggested by Shifman and Turbiner [1, 2] is based on the properties of the representations of the algebra $sl(2, \mathbf{R})$

$$[Q_0, Q_{\pm}] = \pm Q_{\pm}, \quad [Q_-, Q_+] = 2Q_0 \quad (1)$$

by first-order differential operators. Namely, the approach in question utilizes the fact that the representation space of the algebra $sl(2, \mathbf{R})$ having the basis elements

$$Q_- = \frac{d}{dx}, \quad Q_0 = x \frac{d}{dx} - n, \quad Q_+ = x^2 \frac{d}{dx} - 2nx, \quad (2)$$

where n is an arbitrary natural number, has an $(n + 1)$ -dimensional invariant subspace. Its basis is formed by the polynomials in x of the order not higher than n (for further details see the monograph by Ushveridze [3] and references therein).

The aim of the present paper is to extend the above Lie-algebraic approach in order to make it applicable to analyzing eigenvalue problems for matrix differential operators.

*e-mail: rzhdanov@apmat.freenet.kiev.ua

The key idea is that the basis elements of the algebra $sl(2, \mathbf{R})$ are searched for within the class of matrix differential operators

$$Q = \xi(x) \frac{d}{dx} + \eta(x), \quad (3)$$

where $\xi(x), \eta(x)$ are some matrix-valued functions of the corresponding dimension. Furthermore, the representation space of $sl(2, \mathbf{R})$ must contain a finite-dimensional subspace. Provided these requirements are met, a quasi-exactly solvable matrix model is obtained by composing a linear combination of the basis elements of the algebra $sl(2, \mathbf{R})$ with constant matrix coefficients.

Thus, to get a quasi-exactly solvable matrix model we need to solve two intermediate problems

- 1) to solve the relations (1) within the class (3),
- 2) to pick out from the set of thus obtained realizations of the algebra $sl(2, \mathbf{C})$ those ones whose representation space contains a finite-dimensional invariant subspace.

In a sequel we will restrict our considerations to the case when $\xi(x)$ is a scalar multiple of the unit matrix. Given this restriction, a simple computation yields that any representation of $sl(2, \mathbf{R})$ within the class of operators (3) is equivalent to the following one:

$$Q_- = \frac{d}{dx}, \quad Q_0 = x \frac{d}{dx} + A, \quad Q_+ = x^2 \frac{d}{dx} + 2xA + B, \quad (4)$$

where A, B are constant $N \times N$ matrices satisfying the relation

$$[A, B] = B. \quad (5)$$

Next, we have to investigate under which circumstances the representation space of the algebra (4) has a finite-dimensional invariant subspace \mathcal{I}_n with basis elements

$$\vec{f}_i(x) = \sum_{j=1}^N F_{ij}(x) \vec{e}_j, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

Here $\vec{e}_1, \dots, \vec{e}_N$ is the orthonormal basis of the space \mathbf{R}^N . It occurs that the components of the functions \vec{f}_i are necessarily polynomials in x of the order not higher than $n - 1$.

Theorem 1 Let the functions $\vec{f}_1(x), \dots, \vec{f}_n(x)$ form the basis of the invariant subspace \mathcal{I}_n of the representation space of the Lie algebra $\langle \frac{d}{dx}, x\frac{d}{dx} + A \rangle$, where A is a constant $N \times N$ matrix. Then

$$\frac{d^n \vec{f}_i(x)}{dx^n} = \vec{0}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n. \quad (6)$$

We will give a sketch of the proof for the case, when $N = 2$. The requirement that a representation space of a Lie algebra under study contains a finite-dimensional invariant subspace means that the following relations hold

$$\frac{d}{dx} \vec{f}_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \Lambda_{ij} \vec{f}_j, \quad (7)$$

$$\left(x \frac{d}{dx} + A \right) \vec{f}_i = \sum_{j=1}^n L_{ij} \vec{f}_j, \quad (8)$$

where Λ_{ij}, L_{ij} are arbitrary complex constants, $i, j = 1, \dots, n$.

Solving (7) yields

$$\vec{f}_i(x) = \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^n \left(e^{\Lambda x} \right)_{ik} C_{kj} \vec{e}_j, \quad (9)$$

where C_{ij} , $i = 1, \dots, n$, $j = 1, \dots, N$ are arbitrary complex constants and the symbol $(A)_{ij}$ stands for the (i, j) th entry of the matrix A .

Next, from the requirement (8) we get

$$x\Lambda C + CA = e^{-\Lambda x} L e^{\Lambda x} C. \quad (10)$$

Making use of the Cambell-Hausdorff formula and equating coefficients of the powers of x give the following infinite set of algebraic equations for unknown matrices L, Λ, C, A :

$$LC = CA, \quad (11)$$

$$[L, \Lambda]C = \Lambda C, \quad (12)$$

$$\{L, \Lambda\}^i C = 0, \quad i \geq 2, \quad (13)$$

where

$$\{L, \Lambda\}^0 = L, \quad \{L, \Lambda\}^i = [\{L, \Lambda\}^{i-1}, \Lambda], \quad i \geq 1.$$

Choosing the basis vectors \vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2 in an appropriate way, we can transform the constant matrix A to the Jordan form. There are two possibilities

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}, \quad (14)$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (15)$$

Here $\lambda, \lambda_1, \lambda_2$ are arbitrary constants.

Case 1. Let the matrix A be of the form (14). If we denote the first and the second columns of the 2×2 matrix C as \vec{C}_1 and \vec{C}_2 , then equations (11) can be rewritten to become

$$L\vec{C}_1 = \lambda\vec{C}_1, \quad L\vec{C}_2 = \vec{C}_1 + \lambda\vec{C}_2.$$

Next, using equations (12), (13) we obtain the following relations

$$L\Lambda^j\vec{C}_1 = \lambda_j\Lambda^j\vec{C}_1, \quad (16)$$

$$L\Lambda^j\vec{C}_2 = \Lambda^j\vec{C}_1 + \lambda_j\Lambda^j\vec{C}_2. \quad (17)$$

Here $\lambda_0 = \lambda, \lambda_{j+1} = \lambda_j + 1, j = 0, 1, \dots$

It follows from (16) that $\vec{a}_{i+1} = \Lambda^i\vec{C}_1, i \geq 0$ are eigenvectors of the $n \times n$ matrix L corresponding to eigenvalues $\lambda_i = \lambda + i$ and, what is more, since these eigenvectors correspond to distinct eigenvalues, they are linearly independent. As there are at most n linearly independent eigenvectors of the matrix L , the relation

$$\Lambda^m\vec{C}_1 = \vec{0} \quad (18)$$

with some $m \leq n$ holds true.

Combining (17) and (18) yields

$$L\Lambda^{m+i}\vec{C}_1 = \lambda_{m+i}\Lambda^{m+i}\vec{C}_2, \quad i \geq 0. \quad (19)$$

Hence, we conclude that the vectors $\vec{a}_{m+i} = \Lambda^{m+i}\vec{C}_2, i \geq 0$ are eigenvectors of the matrix L forming together with the vectors $\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_m$ the system of its linearly independent eigenvectors. As an $n \times n$ matrix has at most n linearly independent eigenvectors, the relation

$$\Lambda^n\vec{C}_2 = \vec{0} \quad (20)$$

holds true.

In view of (18), (20) the matrix $C = (\vec{C}_1, \vec{C}_2)$ satisfy the following matrix equation

$$\Lambda^n C = 0.$$

Due to this fact, (9) reads as

$$\vec{f}_i(x) = \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^n \left(1 + x\Lambda + \frac{x^2}{2!}\Lambda^2 + \cdots + \frac{x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}\Lambda^{n-1} \right)_{ik} C_{kj} \vec{e}_j. \quad (21)$$

Thus, the components of the vectors \vec{f}_j are polynomials of the order not higher than $n-1$, which is the same as what was to be proved.

Case 2. We turn now to the case when the matrix A is given by (15). Denoting the first and the second columns of the 2×2 matrix C as \vec{C}_1 and \vec{C}_2 , we rewrite equations (11) as follows

$$L\vec{C}_1 = \lambda_1 \vec{C}_1, \quad L\vec{C}_2 = \lambda_2 \vec{C}_2.$$

Next, using equations (12), (13) we obtain the relations:

$$L\Lambda^j \vec{C}_1 = \alpha_j \Lambda^j \vec{C}_1, \quad (22)$$

$$L\Lambda^j \vec{C}_2 = \beta_j \Lambda^j \vec{C}_2, \quad (23)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_0 &= \lambda_1, & \alpha_{j+1} &= \alpha_j + 1, & j &= 0, 1, \dots, \\ \beta_0 &= \lambda_2, & \beta_{j+1} &= \beta_j + 1, & j &= 0, 1, \dots. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the vectors $\vec{e}_{i+1} = \Lambda^i \vec{C}_1$, $i = 0, 1, \dots$ are eigenvectors of the $n \times n$ matrix L with eigenvalues $\alpha_i = \lambda_1 + i$, $i = 0, 1, \dots$. As these eigenvalues are distinct, the vectors \vec{e}_i are linearly independent. Taking into account that an $n \times n$ matrix can have at most n linearly independent eigenvectors we conclude that $\Lambda^n \vec{C}_1 = \vec{0}$. Similarly, we get the relation $\Lambda^n \vec{C}_2 = \vec{0}$. Hence it follows that the expression (9) takes the form (21), which is the same as what was to be proved. •

Consequently, the most general finite-dimensional invariant subspace of the representation space of the algebra (4) is spanned by vectors whose components are finite-order polynomials in x . We postpone a detailed study of these representations with arbitrary N for future publications and concentrate on the case $N = 2$. There are two families of inequivalent finite dimensional representations of the algebra $sl(2, \mathbf{R})$ having the basis elements (4)

$$\text{I. } A = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{n}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{m}{2} \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (24)$$

$$\text{II. } A = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{n}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{2-n}{2} \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (25)$$

Here n, m are arbitrary natural numbers with $n \geq m$.

Representations of the form (4), (24) are the direct sums of two irreducible representations realized on the representation spaces

$$\mathcal{R}_1 = \langle \vec{e}_1, x\vec{e}_1, \dots, x^n\vec{e}_1 \rangle, \quad \mathcal{R}_2 = \langle \vec{e}_2, x\vec{e}_2, \dots, x^m\vec{e}_2 \rangle,$$

where $\vec{e}_1 = (1, 0)^T$, $\vec{e}_2 = (0, 1)^T$.

Next, representations (4), (25) are also the direct sums of two irreducible representations realized on the representation spaces

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{R}_1 &= \langle n\vec{e}_1, \dots, nx^j\vec{e}_1 + jx^{j-1}\vec{e}_2, \dots, nx^n\vec{e}_1 + nx^{n-1}\vec{e}_2 \rangle, \\ \mathcal{R}_2 &= \langle \vec{e}_2, x\vec{e}_2, \dots, x^{n-2}\vec{e}_2 \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

We will finish the paper with an example of utilizing the above results for obtaining an exactly solvable two-component Dirac-type equation, which is one of the two differential equations composing the Lax pair for the cubic Schrödinger equation (see, e.g. [4, 5]). Consider the following two-component matrix model:

$$\mathcal{H}\vec{w} \equiv i(ax\sigma_2 + b\sigma_1)\frac{d\vec{w}}{dx} + (c_1\sigma_1 + (c_2 + ia)\sigma_2)\vec{w} = \lambda\vec{w}, \quad (26)$$

where a, b, c_1, c_2 are arbitrary real parameters with $ab \neq 0$ and σ_1, σ_2 are 2×2 Pauli matrices. As

$$\mathcal{H} = ib\sigma_1 Q_- + ia\sigma_2 Q_0 + c_1\sigma_1 + c_2\sigma_2,$$

where Q_-, Q_+ are given by (4) with $A = 1$, the operator \mathcal{H} transforms the $(2n+2)$ -dimensional vector space

$$\vec{f}_j(x) = x^{j-1}\vec{e}_1, \quad \vec{f}_{n+j+1}(x) = x^{j-1}\vec{e}_2, \quad j = 1, \dots, n+1$$

into itself. This means that there exists the constant $(2n+2) \times (2n+2)$ matrix H such that

$$\mathcal{H}\vec{f}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{2n+2} H_{ij}\vec{f}_j, \quad i = 1, \dots, 2n+2.$$

Hence it immediately follows that the vector-function

$$\vec{\psi}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{2n+2} \alpha_j \vec{f}_j(x)$$

is the solution of the system of ordinary differential equations (26) with $\lambda = \lambda_0$, provided $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{2n+2})$ is an eigenvector of the matrix H with the eigenvalue λ_0 .

Making a transformation

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \frac{b}{a} \sinh(ay), \\ \vec{w}(x) &= (\cosh(ay))^{1/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{i}{a} (c_1 \arctan \sinh(ay) + c_2 \ln \cosh(ay)) \right\} \\ &\quad \times \exp \{ -i\sigma_3 \arctan \sinh(ay) \} \vec{\psi}(y) \end{aligned}$$

we reduce (26) to the Dirac-type equation

$$i\sigma_1 \frac{d\vec{\psi}}{dy} + \sigma_2 V(y) \vec{\psi}(y) = \lambda \vec{\psi}, \quad (27)$$

where

$$V(y) = \frac{a^2 c_2 - b^2 c_1 \sinh(ay)}{ab \cosh(ay)}$$

is the well-known hyperbolic Pöschel-Teller potential. It has exact solutions of the form

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(y) &= (\cosh(ay))^{-1/2} \exp \left\{ \frac{i}{a} (c_1 \arctan \sinh(ay) + c_2 \ln \cosh(ay)) \right\} \\ &\quad \times \exp \{ i \arctan \sinh(ay) \sigma_3 \} \sum_{j=1}^{2n+2} \alpha_j \vec{f}_j \left(\frac{b}{a} \sinh(ay) \right). \end{aligned}$$

As the potential V does not depend explicitly on n , the order of the polynomials P_n, Q_n may be arbitrarily large. This means that the Dirac equation (27) with the hyperbolic Pöschel-Teller potential is *exactly-solvable*.

In [6] we suggest an alternative approach to construction of quasi-exactly solvable stationary Schrödinger equations based on their conditional symmetry. We believe that a similar idea should work for matrix models as well. It is intended to devote one of the future publications to a comparison of the conditional symmetry and Lie-algebraic approaches to constructing quasi-exactly solvable Dirac-type equations (27).

Acknowledgements

It is a pleasure for the author to thank Anatolii Nikitin for a fruitful discussion of some aspects of this work and Alex Ushveridze who encourage him to present the above material as a paper.

References

- [1] A.V. Turbiner, Comm. Math. Phys., **118**, 467 (1988).
- [2] M.A. Shifman and A.V. Turbiner, Comm. Math. Phys., **126**, 347 (1989).
- [3] A.G. Ushveridze, *Quasi-exactly solvable models in quantum mechanics* (IOP Publ., Bristol, 1993).
- [4] Ablovitz M.J., Segur H. *Solitons and the Inverse Scattering Transform*, SIAM, Philadelphia (1981).
- [5] Zakharov V.E., Manakov S.V., Novikov S.P. and Pitaevski L.P. *Theory of Solitons: the Inverse Scattering Method*, Consultants Bureau, New York (1980).
- [6] Zhdanov R.Z., *J. Math. Phys.*, **37**, 3198 (1996).